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AUTHOR Farrar, Elizabeth B.
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ABSTRACT

Within the purview of a Chapter One Basic Program, this practicum initiated a 3-month intervention in oral language development for minority group first grade students with language differences and delayed speech who attended Gove Elementary School, Belle Glade, Florida. Goals for students included extension of mean length of utterance (MLU), and growth in general cognitive ability. Goals for the school and the program were: an increase in awareness of the relationship between oral language development and reading and an awareness of the need for a developmental program in oral language. Intervention involved various activities, including rhythms and movement, dramatization, language experience, and sentence patterning. Evaluation data showed an extension of MLU of nearly 34 percent, a growth in function words of 42 percent, and an overall growth in Piagetian seriation, numeration, and discrimination tasks of 19 percent. As a result of the intervention, plans were made to modify the Chapter One Basic Compensatory Program to include language experience and oral language components. Related materials are appended, including diagnostic material such as the Sentence Repetition Technique; Piagetian tasks of discrimination, seriation, and numeration; and descriptions of activities, including Magic Circle, Getting Ready, dictating the shared conversation, sentence patterns, ball rhythms, categories, reading lips, and spontaneous group talk. (Author/RH)

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Accelerating the Development of Oral Language of Children of Low Socio-economic Status

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NOVA UNIVERSITY

Accelerating the Development of Oral Language of Children of Low Socio-economic Status

by

Elizabeth B. Farrar

Cluster 16

A Practicum Report Presented to the Ed.D. Program
in Early Childhool
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Education

NOVA UNIVERSITY

1985

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PRACTICUM APPROVAL SHEET

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This practicum took place as described.

Verifier: Ruth S. Levin
Name

Principal, Nova Elem. School
Title

4015 SE 6th Ave, Ft. Lauderdale, Fl. 33334
Address

July 31, 1985
Date

This practicum report was submitted by (Name of Student) under the direction of the reviewer listed below. It was submitted to the Ed.D. Program in Early Childhood and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Early Childhood at Nova University.

Approved:

8-85	Jeri Sorosky, Ed. D.
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Elizabeth B. Farrar
Belle Glade, Florida

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ABSTRACT

Accelerating Oral Language Development of Low Socio-economic Children. Farrar, Elizabeth B., 1985: Practicum Report, Nova University Ed. D. Program in Early Childhood.

Descriptors: Child Language/ Language Acquisition/ Standard Spoken Usage/Applied Linguistics/ Language Socio-linguistics/ Native Language Instruction/ Testing/ Speech.

This practicum addressed the need for a curriculum to provide for the oral language growth of children who are culturally and socio-economically at variance with the main-stream school population. Linguists disagree as to whether language is best represented by written texts or by oral utterances. The usual phonics approach to reading assumes textual meaning. Learning to read has traditionally been seen as a cognitive problem. Only recently has reading been treated as a social phenomenon, one which occurs in groups and is intrinsically imbedded in the culture of the users. The problem is to extend the oral language expression of first-graders from the static (pre-operational) to the dynamic (operational), from the expression of the child's immediate needs to the decontextualized language of the school books.

The writer's goals were: 1) to increase the child's Mean Length of Utterance (MLU) by 20 percent as measured by oral dictations, 2) to increase the child's use of function words by 15 percent as measured by a Sentence Repetition Task, 3) to observe the child's cognitive growth as measured by Piagetian tasks of seriation, numeration and discrimination, 4) to heighten the awareness of the educational community of the need for attention to oral language development in relation to reading. From the literature, the writer synthesized successful programs using the following components: 1) rhythms and movement 2) dramatization 3) language experience 4) sentence patterning.

Results showed an extension of MLU of nearly 34 percent, a growth in function words of 42 percent and an overall growth in Piagetian tasks of 19 percent. Chapter One Basic Compensatory Program will include a language experience component and an oral language component in a new emphasis in curriculum.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Description of Community

Sugarcane planting began in August. Off-shore laborers dropped, by hand, stalks of green cane into the rich muck soil and covered them. Each planting produced from three to five crops harvested between November and April. Laborers were brought into Belle Glade, Florida, from the underdeveloped countries to the south: the West Indies islands of Jamaica, Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Dominica. "Wetbacks" from Mexico, refugees from Cuba, and later from Haiti swelled the working and non-working population. Off-shore cane-cutters returned to the islands in March; vegetable laborers who moved "up the road" in April with the migrant stream, looked for summer crops to harvest. (Sugar Cane Growers Cooperative of Florida, 1978). Often, parents went "up the road," leaving children during the summer with extended family.

The year-around population of Belle Glade was counted at 17,760 residents; the winter population swelled to as many as 30,000 or more. No one was sure of figures. Most agricultural workers and the unemployed lived in the inner-city ghetto. In the winter over half the approximately 30,000 people lived in the ghetto, an area extending ten city blocks. Approximately three fourths of the city's population (including uncounted persons) was minority; nearly all of the minority population was crowded into 40% of the city's land area. The city of Belle Glade was the largest municipality in the western

part of Palm Beach County and had been designated as a "distressed" city under the Urban Development Action Grant (UDAG) Program. (Comprehensive Plan, City of Belle Glade, 1978). Two low-cost, federally funded housing projects were located on the city's perimeter. It was from these, that many children made their way by bus to Gove Elementary School. Many of their parents had already left for the fields before six a.m. Many children returned home long before their parents were back from the fields. Men worked in cane; women, in winter vegetables and packing houses.

Seventy-five percent of Gove's children were minority: 50 percent North American Black, Jamaican, fifteen percent Mexican, ten percent Arab. A few were Indian, Vietnamese, Chinese. The elementary school served migrant children ages three and four under a federally funded migrant program. These children "trickled into" school until November first, when all returned from their journey with their parents in the North in the migrant stream. A mandatory kindergarten for all children served five-year olds; the remaining students were enrolled in grades one through five. The school also existed in conjunction with the West Area Exceptional Childhood Center. All sixty Exceptional Childhood Education children were mentally, emotionally or physically handicapped and ranged in age from five years to eighteen years.

Children, identified as gifted, attended classes at the Palm Beach Junior College, Belle Glade, on a pull-out basis. Minority children, identified as "potentially gifted" throughout the area,

were taught in a third grade self-contained situation in Gove Elementary. The migrant program served migrant children grades one through five in a compensatory pull-out model in math. A more inclusive program was the Chapter One Basic, serving both migrant and year-around students, identified as "long term preventative" by the classroom teachers, in grade one. In grades two through five, Chapter One served all children scoring below the 25th percentile in total reading scores on the Stanford Achievement Test.

The general quality of the school program and its leadership gained credibility with the white population, such that the school enrollment had increased to nearly 1,000 students and over 100 staff. Anglo children, previously enrolled in private schools, began to swell the white school population. Classrooms were self-contained. Most teachers had in their classrooms a full-time teacher's aide.

Children from the Exceptional Childhood Education Center were, in many instances, mainstreamed into regular classroom situations. An important component of the Exceptional Childhood Center was the growing of vegetables, preparation and selling, and the preparation of nursery plants in the greenhouse. During the hot, sunny winter months, children could be seen picking the beans, broccoli, turnip greens, squash, corn, and okra that flourished in the black muck.

Gove, under imaginative leadership, had been given the opportunity to pilot a county-wide computer program. With the help of parents who had left the private schools, Gove had raised money for IBM computers in the media center and computers to be shared in the classrooms.

Author's Work Setting and Role

Chapter One, formerly Title One, programs were first implemented in the 60's under the Johnson administration, as compensatory education for "culturally deprived" children in public schools. In 1982, Title One became Chapter One as the migrant program was subsumed under its authority. Chapter One Basic included migrant children as well as all other children, identified as potentially having difficulty in academic work. At Gove Elementary, Chapter One Basic students worked in the area of reading only. The writer was employed by the federal government as a teacher of reading to first and second grade students in the Chapter One Basic program. Children in the program had been identified as educationally "at risk" through screening as "long term preventative" or as simply "repeaters."

Children were a part of a "pull-out" model, leaving their classrooms to go to the Chapter One Basic area of the media center for a thirty-minute period each day. The writer taught, with an aide, eight classes each day, with a maximum group of ten children in each class. Five classes were first grade; three were second grade; thirty-five students were first grade; twenty were second grade. The enrollment fluctuated with the migratory population. Classes were divided into two groups. One group was taught by the aide, vocabulary words from the basal Ginn reader on computers. A second group was taught by the writer auditory discrimination, auditory memory, visual memory, sound-symbol correspondancies and vocabulary, along with the affective development. Children were required to be at computers two days a

week. The remaining three days were given over to the auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile, finally to the reading of simple books.

The writer of this practicum has taught in the Chapter One first grade for six years. Previous experiences include middle school reading in the Belle Glade ghetto, and middle school Title One to children of tenant tobacco farmers in North Carolina, and adult classes in art and reading in the junior college.

The writer was responsible for the program of no more than eighty first and second grade children, whose back-grounds were primarily American Black, Mexican, Cuban,Arab, and North American White. All came from families where standard English was not the dominant language. Concerned about the home environment of these children, the writer was a founder of a non-profit housing group, involved in bringing affordable housing to the Belle Glade ghetto. The writer was also responsible for the Volunteer Program at Gove, and initiated the Reading Is Fundamental Program.

CHAPTER II

STUDY OF THE PROBLEM

Problem Description

"Why don't these children of the west area of Palm Beach County score above the 25th percentile on reading on standardized tests?" the administration asked. The superintendent lived in affluent Palm Beach on the eastern edge of the county. "Possibly more drill? More stringent disciplinary measures? More computers? More competent teachers?"

There were many reasons why these children of poverty did not perform well in reading on standardized tests. This practicum addressed itself exclusively to one problem--lack of oral language facility. This was an area where it would have been possible for the public schools to effect a change.

Perhaps one reason that oral language had not been emphasized in the classroom was that it was difficult to measure. School systems like to teach that which is measureable. Some teaching may, in fact, have been done to a measuring instrument. Standardized tests related to receptive language, not expressive language. Areas of learning not directly applicable to standardized tests were likely to be given lip-service only.

Another reason oral language had not been addressed in the classroom may, perhaps, have been a philosophic one. Since the invention of the printing press, the argument begun by Martin Luther (the meaning is in the text) continues to the present, between Chomsky who

says language is best represented by written texts, and Chafe, who says language is best represented by oral utterance (Olsen, 1977). It would appear that the Palm Beach County school system has agreed with Chomsky. Learning to read has traditionally been seen as a cognitive problem--something children have to solve on their own, inside their own heads. Only recently has reading been treated as a social phenomenon, one which often occurs by and in groups, and which is intrinsically embedded in the culture of its users (Snow, 1983).

Oral language development has not been considered more seriously, perhaps, because much research remains to be done in order to test the hypothesis that the development of literacy skills, and the use of decontextualized language emerge from different ontogenetic roots. It may be that literacy skills were easily developed at school; using language in a decontextualized way relied heavily on experience only the home could provide (Snow, 1983).

The on-going debate during the past twenty years over language "difference" versus language "deficits" may have exacerbated the whole area of oral language in relation to "dialect" speakers---(which probably included nearly everyone.) The path of least resistance has probably been just not to get into the whole area of oral language, since the dominant dialect in the home would prevail anyhow.

Even though studies have showed a positive relationship between oral language and reading facility, (Loban, 1963), just how deep was the relationship? Couldn't the schools skirt the whole area of oral language and just teach reading?

Finally, the pragmatic reason for little practice in oral language probably has had to do with class "control" by the teacher. Oral language in small groups usually ended in kindergarten. From first grade until twelfth grade through college and graduate school, the norm had been the noiseless classroom. Did the schools really want to give students the opportunity to develop oral language? Reading and writing were noiseless skills; speaking and listening relied on sounds; speaking could be divergent, not bound to text; speaking could be spontaneous and therefore dangerous.

First grade children "at risk" came to the Chapter One Basic program with language differences and delayed speech, as identified by the school speech therapist. Acquiring a language involved the development of three interrelated knowledge systems: 1) knowledge of the world 2) knowledge of the structure and content of language, and 3) knowledge of language use in interraction and communication (Anastaiow, 1974). The child's primary task was to make sense of her/his environment. As the infant gathered information about objects and persons, she/he processed this information and stored it categorically. With experience, this accumulated information was retrieved and modified when new information was received. Children knew <u>about</u> things before they learned the names of things (Anastasiow, Hanes & Hanes, 1982). As a child developed in cognition, she/he would develop in language (Butler, 1974).

The writer has found these "at risk" students were delayed in the development of all three systems: 1) knowledge of the world

2) knowledge of the structure and content of language, and 3) knowledge of language use in communication. Children had an extremely limited experiential background. In presenting objects beginning with the sound of "l" "lamp" to first graders (could not name); "lemon," (could not name); "letter" (called "mail"); "ladder," (could not name). These objects were not within these children's experiences. The words "ham" and "steak" were not within their vocabularies. Words like "toaster" were unknown. Many children lived without kitchens or a place to prepare food. Children from Arabic or Hispanic households simply did not know the English names for objects which may have been common to them in their native language.

The second knowledge system, the development of an understanding of words and the rules for organizing words to express meaning (phonology and syntax) was also a negative component in the speech of these children of poverty. Meanings were confused when "meal" was pronounced "mill;" "heal" was pronounced "hill." The regular differences in Black English made organizing words to express meaning in Standard English, difficult for these children. Phonology (how words are pronounced) and syntax (how words are put together) were from a different system. Baratz (1969) and Labov (1972) have made the following identifications in Black English:

. Grammatical Distinctors

1. Omission of s in third person singular (He walk for "He walks").
2. Omission of possessive ("Mary husband" for "Mary's husband").
3. Omission of past tense ("He walk" for "He walked").

4. Omission of plural s ("two coat" for "two coats").
5. Omission of copula ("She a cook" for "She is a cook").
6. Substitution of do or did for if in present and past conditional questions ("Ask John do he want to play" for "Ask John if he wants to play"); "He asked did I come" for "He asked if I came").
7. Use of be as a duration indicator in third person singular present tense denoting continuous action in the present ("Everyday she be walking" for "Everyday she walks").
8. Negation ("He ain't got no toys" or "He don't have no toys" for "He doesn't have any toys").
9. Negation of to be ("Everyday, when I come, he don't be here" for "Everyday, when I come, he isn't here").

Phonologic Distinctors

1. Voiced plosives tend to devoice in final position (/rip/ for /rib/).
2. Substitution between nasal phonemes in the final position (pae m/ for pan; crayon /Kraiaem/ for crayon).
3. Weakening of final plosives (boo/bu for boot; boo/bu for book).
4. Fricative th becomes d in final position (/den/ for then).
5. Glide /r/ does not occur between two vowels (/kaet/ for carrot); glide /r/ does not occur finally or preceding a consonant (bah /ba/ for bar; cot /kat/ for cart).
6. In initial consonant clusters the /r tends to drop out after th/ o/, /b/, /p/, k/, and /g/ (pofessor for professor); str/ becomes /skr/, /skrit/ for street.

7. Glide /l/ does not occur in final position (toe /to/ for toll); glide /l/ may not occur before /t/, /p/, or /d/ (hep for help; code for cold).
8. Final consonant clusters are simplified (ben for bend; muss for must).

The third knowledge system involving "how" and for "what purpose" language is used, was also delayed. Children responded to questions with short phrases, failed to "elaborate" spontaneously, seldom went beyond labeling, failed to give explanations or to reflect on the past for use in the present, or to anticipate the future for planning. Children demonstrated a general lack of complex thinking structures; operated under a different cognitive structure and a different linguistic code, and lacked the type of language in which words are used in a variety of ways (Anastasiow et al, 1982).

Ideally, the mean length of utterance of these children should have been between 7.3 and 7.6, that which might have been expected for the seven to eight year old (Anastasiow et al, 1982). Children should have spoken in complete sentences, instead of two or three word phrases; should have begun to acquire and understand the use of function words; word meanings should have included a variety of usages in a sentence, that is, verb and noun interchanges; children should have been able to use: the temporal connective "then," locatives ("where," "when") phrase markers ("what," "which"), "wh" interrogatives ("who," "what," "when," "where,"); should have been able to use a variety of different pronouns and prepositions in their normal speech.

Cognitively, children should have begun to think in more abstract, complex terms. There should have been evidence of the beginnings of abstract reasoning, the ability to summarize in a sentence or two an experience, or the story line in a book. Children should have been able to use orally the four hundred words adapted from Children who Move with the Crops (Anastasiow et al, 1982) have begun to use "wh" words ("Who," "what," "when," "where") and words mismatched from speech to print, have begun to use articles and conjunctions. (Children use context words before function words, focus on meaning rather than syntax (Butler, 1974).

Discrepancies in use of language occured in mean length of utterance (probably about 5.6 as compared to 7.6 for a child of seven in the normal range. Measureable discrepancies occured in speech patterns, that is, Black English as against Standard English. Hispanic children had another set of difficulties. For example, discrepancies occured in pronounciation of "str" and "ch" pronounced simply "sh".

In reviewing the literature, the writer remembered the words of Ashton-Warner (1963). Could it have been so long? Yet she said it well. School should be conceived of as a place where creative activities are the agents of change. Get what "is locked inside, out". The first grade should be a bridge from the known to the unknown. It is not beauty to abruptly halt the growth of a young mind and to overlay it with the frame of an imposed culture. (Ashton-Warner, 1963). These words of Ashton-Warner's were as true in Belle Glade, Florida as they were twenty years ago in a Maori infant room in New Zealand.

Surely speech was the very essence and personality of the speaker. Speech was personal. Speech represented the child. Speech was the transition from home to school. Time must be allowed for first, intensely meaningful words to be articulated, written down by a listening teacher. Why not talking by the children, listening by the teacher? If children were not aware of text-like utterances, they were aware of their own. Their words could become the text. The meaning, surely, at this age and with this particular group of children, was in utterance, not in the text.

At Gove Elementary, children filed silently into the classroom, sat rigidly, staring at tiny print on a computer screen. Where was the movement, the singing, the dancing, the meaning? Where, indeed, were the children? What was inside? How did they feel? What did they think about? Except for their marvelously imaginative dress, they were the same. And except for their names: Shakira, Mohammed, Lino, Shinaz, Faten, Cesar, Terrill, Lorenzo, Shatashawa, Issac. Two days a week, these children played computer "games" with word lists keyed to their levels in the Ginn readers in the classroom. Three days a week needed to be from the "inside out" instead of the "outside in". There were only three thirty-minute periods with which to work.

Speech had power. The problem was that children of poverty lacked that power. It was apparent that a discrepancy existed in the use of decontextualized language in children of low socio-economic status. Lack of fluency in oral language was a handicap to children of poverty in the area of reading as well as speech.

Problem Documentation

When the Stanford Achievement Test was given 345 children of second, third and fourth grades at Gove in April, 1984, 180 students scored below the 25th percentile in total reading. In grade two, 64% scored below the 25th; in grade three, 49% and in grade four, 51% scored below the 25th percentile.

In September, 1983, all kindergarten children at Gove Elementary were given the Florida Language Screening System Scoring Form. Of 107 students tested in the kindergarten, eight fell into the tenth percentile; 15 within the 20th percentile; 16 within the 30th percentile, and an additional 12 within the 40th percentile. Of the 107 students tested, 64 scored below the 50th percentile. Of the eighteen in the 100th percentile, all were white, middle class, without exception.

Nearly 25% of Gove's kindergarten classes scored below the minimum acceptable performance in oral language. All of these children were eligible for further diagnostic testing. The speech therapist had room for only nine of the twenty-three. The normal case load for a speech teacher was 24-40 students; Gove Elementary's case load was 65-100 students. There was a pressing need for another speech teacher. Nearly one-half of Chapter One students scored below the 25th percentile on the speech screening test, indicating they needed further help. Florida's screening test includes: Phonology/Lexology (receptive vocabulary and expressive); Semology (the understanding of the language) receptive and expressive; Morphology (grammar) receptive and expressive; Tactology (expressive grammar).

Gove Elementary's position vis a vis speech was further compounded by the need in the Exceptional Childhood Center for one-to-one instruction. The individual needs of children with cerebral palsy, Downs syndrome, and emotional disturbances were top priority.

Analysis of the Problem

Causes of the problem were extensive. The fact that parents were absent from the household during the day and part of the night contributed to lack of educational stimulation and low emotional support. The language model used in the homes of these children was different from Standard English (Hale, 1982). Many of these families spoke no English in the home. Other families spoke a dialect with different linguistic patterns. Black children and parents tended not to be goal-oriented but people or peer-oriented. In these families there was probably not the need to achieve. No doubt there was a lack of encouragement to achieve developmental milestones. More frequent use of physical punishment in Black families, along with abusive language, was surely a deterrant to speech development (Hale, 1982). The general socio-economic plight of poverty families resulted in more stress, drugs, and crime. All of this has had an influence negatively on speech development. The up-rootedness of the migrant family probably has resulted in a general lack of experiential background appropriate to the curriculum resulted in delayed cognitive growth. Lack of books in the home, story-time, the total unfamiliarity of text-like print, and language accounted for delays in the speech of these children (Snow, 1983).

The Related Literature

Hansen (1974) referred to Loban's longitudinal research (1963) which has shown that children who could not read and write well by the end of third grade were those who ranked low in oral language in kindergarten and the first three years of school. Lower class children have the capacity to think logically but have not been taught to utilize these forms (Anastasiow, 1982). Anastasiow continued by saying that the overwhelming majority of children in poverty have the genetic potential to develop normal IQ's and to do well in school. The fact that large numbers of them do not, is due in part to the caregiver's lack of education, the use of debilitating and outmoded teaching styles, and the school's lower expectations for these children.

The conclusion that was drawn from a longitudinal study on Kauai, one of the Hawaiian Islands, (Werner, Bierman, and French, 1971; Werner and Smith, 1977; and Werner and Smith, 1981) was that healthy and unhealthy infants suffer adversely in conditions of low stimulation and emotional support. Social class did not explain the differences in IQ or achievement scores among the various ethnic groups. What seemed strongly related was the language model used in the home and the amount of educational stimulation. Studies focusing specifically on language development provided a broad set of variables that seemed to be facilitating: verbal stimulation, moderate warmth and emotional support, responsiveness, low use of physical punishment, and push toward achievement (Anastasiow, 1982).

In recent work comparing black middle class mothers with black lower socio-economic status mothers in New York City, Schachter (1979) found marked differences in verbalization patterns. Lower class black mothers tended to be less verbal, used shorter sentences and responded to their children with nods or smiles. Tough (1977) made a study in England of middle and working class children. Tough found the middle class children tended to use language to predict, to collaborate actions and to project the imagination beyond the present in creative ways. Lower class children used language to secure attention to their own needs, to maintain their own needs, and to monitor their actions. Their language was topic-centered rather than content-centered.

McCabe (1977) studied the language of preoperational and concrete first graders. He found the preoperational produced more static language because they were functioning with static and immobile thought. The concrete operational students were more used to operating with dynamic thought processes, so their language reflected a more dynamic nature, such as the production of extra-nuclear sentence elements as ablatives, locatives, durations, and instrumentals. Holden and McGinitie (1973) in their study of metalinguistic ability and cognitive performance in children from five to seven, set out to determine whether there was a developmental sequence to children's acquisition of metalinguistic abilities and whether the acquisition of these abilities was related to Piagetian operations. They found that language use did not always follow meaning. Hansen believed that the function of linguistic experience was not so much to shape language as to

activate the linguistic competence with which we are born. The teacher should direct the child's discovery of the transformations of complex English patterns. The child must be taught "Ask me a question," by the teacher. More learning should be based on questions the children ask, rather than on questions the teacher asks. Linguistic episodes that challenge the child's optimal linguistic competence can enhance performance in oral language.

Anastasiow (1971) suggested that approaches to teaching oral expression in early childhood include the use of the dictated story, puppets, sentence repetition, play, dramatization, dance, field trips, and singing. Materials designed for rhythmic-physical involvement included rhymes, jingles, dramas, pictures, and chalk boards. DeStefano, Pellegrini, and Thompson (1983) felt that given the similarity between explicit oral language and explicit written language, a program which stimulates the use of explicit oral language should be incorporated into curricula. Relationships between children's use of explicit oral language in social dramatic play and their ability to write and read, have been documented. Lehr (1983), using creative drama to develop language and thought, performed the Tale of Peter Rabbit in pantomime. Children extrapolated and extended the material in King Midas; Casterlow (1978) used informal conversation and the manipulation of materials to stimulate language growth; Larson and Inouye (1974) used pantomiming, acting out sequences, and children described what they were doing. The writers of this program felt one must incorporate ethnic backgrounds as a positive advantage. The reading program was

described as a multimedia program centered upon the immediate environment.

Elenbaas (1983) believed listening ability was the basis for speaking ability. The natural approach to teaching language starts with comprehension rather than production. A technique in developing listening comprehension through motor activities was "Total Physical Response." Beginning with the imperative command, it flooded children with comprehensible input in a low anxiety situation. Elenbaas also used the language experience approach and manipulatives. Cooper and Anastasiow (1981) have successfully expanded oral language by means of a six-phase plan: getting ready; naming and clear production; sentence patterns; reading lips; ball rhythms; and recall. Stauffer and Pikulski (1974) measured the oral language development of children having used first grade language experience approach. Results showed a total of 3,331 different words used in the children's dictations; when stories dictated by a group of first grade children were analyzed, significant improvement was found along all dimensions of oral language usage evaluated. Tape recordings were made of children's oral language elicited in various structured and unstructured circumstances.

As measured by Dunn (1967), the Peabody Language Development kits were successful with low socio-economic status children only on the subtest that measures the ability to express ideas in spoken words. Peabody was weakest on teaching receptive and automatic (nonmeaningful) aspects of language. Peabody was measured by results on the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA). Cemrel's Language and

Thinking Program reported significant effects due to the curriculum in Head Start, using a wide array of manipulatives (Willis, 1972). Howard (1981) described the Auditory Discrimination in Depth (ADD) program, an oral-motor approach to beginning reading. Steps of the program included conducting oral-motor activities in auditory awareness (applying labels based on the physical properties of the mouth action of language sounds), questioning behaviors that help students discriminate sounds, and building a rational framework for categorizing consonant and vowel sounds. Results were positive. Willis (1972) described Cemrel's Language and Thinking Program, a hierarchical skills oriented approach using a wide variety of manipulatives, picture cards, transparencies, and audio tapes. It addressed itself to verbal fluency and vocabulary skills, visual and auditory discrimination skills, skills involved with making predictions, formulating hypotheses, recognizing incongruities and analogies, and synthesizing ideas.

Burie (1970) used student-dictated word portraits to extend verbal language. Hobson and Haley-James (1980) interviewed classroom guests. First grade children were involved in an interviewing program. An evaluation instrument, Children's Language Assessment--Situational Tasks (CLAST), was used successfully and described by Conrad (1975). Over-all findings appeared to establish that oral language was related to reading and writing, that children of poverty have the generic potential to do well in school but suffer adversely from conditions of low stimulation and emotional support. Lower socio-economic status children who are Black have marked differences in verbalization.

Lower class Black mothers tended to be less verbal. Lower class children (Black and White) used oral language that was topic-centered rather than content-centered. Preoperational first graders produced more static language, concrete operational children more dynamic language. Approaches to teaching oral language successfully included the use of play, dramatics, puppets, pantomime, language experience, and generally placing children in a structured situation whereby explicit oral language will be elicited.

CHAPTER III

ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES AND EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

Statement of General Goals

This practicum was designed to initiate an effective three-month intervention in oral language development for first grade children in the Belle Glade Chapter One Basic program, and to meet goals in three areas: goals for the individual students, goals for the school, and goals for the Chapter One Basic program.

Goals for the individual students included: extension of mean length of utterance, accompanied by a growth in general cognitive ability. Goals for Gove Elementary School and the Chapter One program were: a resulting increase in awareness of the relationship between oral language development and reading, and an awareness of the need for a developmental program in oral language.

Behavioral Expectations

The specific behavioral objectives considered evidence of having met the general goals of increased student mean length of utterance and growth in cognition were as follows:

1. In an analysis of oral language on the basis of dictated speech, students would make a significant 20% increase in their mean length of utterance over the three-month period, as measured in pre and posttesting.
2. As measured by Sentence Repetition Task (Appendix A), students would make significantly fewer function word omissions (15%).

3. Measured by Piagetian tasks of discrimination, numeration, and seriation, (Appendix B) scores would be higher (10%) on the post-test over the pretest.
4. The more general goal of heightened awareness of oral language need in the school and in Chapter One was measured by specific examples of teacher, principal, and coordinator interest (see Table 1).

Evaluation Instruments

Three testing instruments were used in evaluating growth in oral language: Piagetian tasks of numeration, seriation, and discrimination (see Appendix B), Sentence Repetition Task (Appendix A) and analysis of dictated language. Fifteen of the 28 non-repeating first graders identified as scoring below the 25th percentile on the Florida Oral Language Screening Form by the speech specialist. All 28 first grade students (non-repeaters) received the oral language intervention of three months. Only 15 students of the 28 were tested with Sentence Repetition Tasks, pre and post, Piagetian tasks, pre and post, and dictated oral language pre and post, the oral language intervention.

In the Sentence Repetition Task, children were asked to repeat a series of stimulus sentences exactly as presented on a pre-taped recording. Responses were taped and analyzed.

Table 1

Anticipated Outcomes of an Oral Language Development Intervention in a First Grade Classroom

Expected Behavior	Assessment Instruments	Standards of Performance
Children as a group would increase MLU as a result of the oral and written sharing of experiences.	Pre and post assessments of the average length of children's dictated expressions first six weeks compared with second six weeks.	20% increase in MLU of the entire group second six weeks.
Children will make fewer function word omissions the second six week period, as a group.	Pre and post assessments on the Sentence Repetition Task.	15% fewer function word ommissions by the group.
Children will make gains in cognitive growth.	Pre and post assessments on Piagetian tasks of discrimination, seriation, and numeration.	10% increase in scores of posttest over pre-test.
Teachers and Administrators will exhibit a heightened awareness of the need for oral language development in the classroom.	Direct Observation of teacher and administration response.	Principal will approve discussion with staff; coordinator will approve sharing with administration at top level.

The sentences were designed to yield two scores. For this study, the writer was interested only in the number of function word omissions, since it was suspected that children with high function word omission scores were developmentally delayed in language acquistion (Anastasiow and Hanes, 1974). Content words were defined as related to actual physical or psychological events. Common content words were "boy", "girl", "dog". Function words, on the other hand, did not contain a specific meaning, but specified relationships between content words. Frequently used function words were "now," "because," "any," "when." Function words were grammatically more complex since they related symbolic representations within a semantic expression and were commonly missing in samples of the children's language. This may have been due to the greater grammatical and cognitive complexity in processing function words. The Sentence Repetition Task was to be given at the beginning of the intervention and again at the end, and and the scores measured for number of function word omissions. At the same time, the Piagetian tasks (Appendix B) were given pre and post, scores measured and compared. It was of interest to the writer to see whether a positive result in Piagetian tasks was accompanied by fewer omissions of function words in the Sentence Repetition Task. Although the Piagetian tasks were not normed tests but criterion referenced, they have been used consistently to measure stages of cognitive development.

One other measurement used, was the analysis of the student's oral language over a three month period. Student's oral language was analyzed by data derived from samples of dictated language experience

stories written by the writer in a chart form. Pupil-dictated stories were compared. Oral language dictated the first six weeks was compared with that recorded the second six weeks. Results were tabulated by an aide and volunteers. MLU (mean length of utterance); average number of words per dictation; average number of sentences per dictation; average number of different words per dictation; average number of prepositions per dictation. It was expected that a growth of 15% would occur on all of these variables, between the dictations of the first six weeks and those of the second six weeks. This test would have high content validity because it was, in fact, a replication of the instructional program, that is, elicited oral language.

Stauffer successfully analyzed for nine different variables the dictated language of 232 children's notebooks dictated between September and the end of January; those dictated between the first of February and the end of June. The writer used Stauffer as a model, analyzing only five variables. The dictated language of the six weeks from January 7 - February 11; then the weeks of February 18 - April 8, allowing for spring vacation.

The Sentence Repetition Task of Anastasiow was not meant to be a normed test although language norms were used in constructing the sentences. Reliability of this test was shown when administered to rural Appalachia and in the Inner City (see Appendix A). The Sentence Repetition Task and the Piagetain tasks were administered individually, allowing approximately fifteen minutes for each student. The writer

allowed at least four hours for each testing of fifteen students. The language experience stories were not a separate test, but part of the instructional program.

Although conducive to tester's bias, the Sentence Repetition Task and the Piagetian tasks were administered before and after the intervention by the writer. Administration of these tests would have required considerable training for aides or volunteers. That kind of time could not be taken from the instructional program.

CHAPTER IV

SOLUTION STRATEGY

Discussion and Evaluation of Possible Solution

The testing and measurement of oral language growth was a problem in itself. The use of situational oral language tasks, as described by Conrad, tape recorded and transcribed for eleven language variables, appeared to be a comprehensive and excellent test. Since, however, it was applied to three different task situations, it would have consumed more time and materials than the writer had at her disposal. Also, the requirement of leaving students alone, unobserved, to tape record language would have been difficult to implement in the writer's circumstances.

McCabe's (1977) study of pre-operational and concrete operational first graders, successfully showing that language tends to be static among preoperational children, more dynamic among concrete operational subjects, made this writer want to test in the area of cognitive growth simultaneously with language growth. Piagetian tasks have successfully measured cognitive stages in children.

Anastasiow's (1974) Sentence Repetition Task could be done in one sitting, as opposed to Conrad's (1975) three situational tasks. It could be used as a measure of growth as well as a simple diagnostic tool, helpful in determining just which children were developmentally delayed in language. As used with inner-city Blacks and in rural Appalachia, it could apply to Belle Glade children. Anastasiow's

attention to the deconceptualized function word seemed to be a dimension the other test-makers had not considered. The writer wanted to know which children omitted function words, thereby being considered developmentally delayed in language.

The language experience approach as used by Ashton-Warner with Maouri Indians with success, later elaborated on by Veatch as an "approved" approach to reading, was used by Elenbaas (1983) and Stauffer and Pikulski (1974) to accclerate oral speech. A language experience approach to reading was pedagogically sound because it capitalized on the child's existing language skills. It also contributed to the further growth of oral language, as well as reading and writing skills (Stauffer and Pikulski, 1974). Language experience seemed appropriate for language different children.

Cooper (1981) and Casterlow (1978) made use of manipulatives as a core of their program. Cooper especially spoke of movement. Rhythmic movement played a large part in her successful kindergarten program in Contra Costa County in California. The children for whom her ideas were developed were primarily rural minority children in California and North Carolina.

Pelligrini et al. (1983) spoke of the relationship of explicit oral language and dramatic play. O'Donnell (1974) said that what was needed was a language program that could encourage and capitalize on Black expression, using creative dramatics and the language experience approach. Cooper and Anastasiow (1981) referred to language as motoric and rhythmic. Hale (1982) described Black children as kinetic,

"constantly on the move," and over-flowing with energy. Hale also referred to them and the Black culture as a whole as peer oriented (i.e., concerned with family and friends). The White, middle-class population, on the other hand, was achievement-oriented, upwardly mobile, often at the price of isolation from peers.

Description of Selected Solutions

The solutions selected were a combination of the visual, kinesthetic, auditory, and tactile, with more emphasis on the auditory and kinesthetic, One solution capitalized on the children's language-different skills, by using the children's own conversation. The assumption throughout was that a child's own way of communicating was intimately related to the child's developing self-respect, and was never perceived as wrong. For these children, kinetic and full of movement, the writer chose a solution using rhythms, rhymes, and jingles. This solution was also based on the premise that language itself is rhythmic and motoric. The third component drew on the premise that Black children are peer-oriented. The components from the literature, arranged into three thirty-minute slots per week were: 1) five minutes conversation in a circle 2) language experience dictations and reading 3) lip-reading, sentence patterns, and ball rhythms 4) dramatic play, group activities involving puppets and pantomiming, cooking and conversations with visitors.

Report of the Action Taken

By the first of January, the fifteen first grade subjects of this

practicum, had already committed to memory their individual vocabulary lists of forty or more words having special meaning to them (i.e., "kiss," "love," "mama," "motorcycle," "Michael Jackson"). Most of these children also had become familiar with an additional twenty or more sight words from the basal reader, learned on the computer. In addition, most of the children knew the names of the letters of the alphabet and the beginning sounds of the consonants.

The writer had intended eliciting conversation on an individual basis, either taping or writing each child's response in his/her own individual dictation book as in Stauffer and Pikulski (1974). Time constraints and the task of keeping the other children meaningfully engaged independently, prevented this plan. Recalling the Magic Circle technique, used in affective education for positive self-image, (Palomares, Uvaldo and Ball, 1972) the writer began the thirty-minute period each Monday and Wednesday with a five-minute Magic Circle, patterned after this Human Development Program (See Appendix C for complete description). Following the five-minute Magic Circle, the children placed their chairs in a row, facing the chart paper, and began dictating in turn, their individual input in the circle, having first been brought to a focused attention (Appendix D). Often, the children's dictations differed from their previous contributions in the circle, but it was this oral utterance that was written down verbatim. As one child dictated, the other children would attempt to spell, using their knowledge of consonant sounds (Appendix E). The remaining five to ten minutes were allotted to Sentence Patterns (Appendix F), Ball Rhythms (Appendix G), Reading Lips (Appendix H).

Spontaneous Group Talk (Appendix I), was a thirty-minute Friday activity using pantomiming, puppetry, cooking, and guest "interviewing" or questioning to stimulate the spontaneous flow of oral speech.

CALENDAR

July 15, 1984	Submitted practicum problem questionnaire.
August 15, 1984	Proposal outline approved.
October 15, 1984	Literature search was completed. Proposal was submitted. Principal's permission was requested.
November 11, 1984	Proposal returned for additions and revisions.
December 10, 1984	Proposal re-submitted for approval.
January 7, 1985	Proposal approved. Began student dictations.
January 8, 1985	Tested Sentence Repetition Task.
January 9, 1985	Tested Piagetian tasks.
April 7, 1985	Ended student dictations.
April 9, 1985	Posttested Sentence Repetition Task.
April 10, 1985	Posttested Piagetian tasks.
April 15, 1985	Began to analyze student dictations.
April 20, 1985	Began writing report.
May 18, 1985	Submitted report.
June 24, 1985	Made corrections to report.
July 10, 1985	Re-submitted report.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results

The goals for this intervention were 1) to extend the student's mean length of utterance, and, in general, cognitive ability. Goals for the Gove Elementary School and Chapter One were: a resulting increase in awareness of the relation-ship between oral language and reading, an awareness of the need for a developmental program in oral language in Chapter One and in Gove Elementary school.

Specific objectives included a 20% increase in mean length of utterance in dictated speech; 15% fewer function word omissions in the Sentence Repetition Task; a 10% increase in Piagetian tasks of seriation, numeration, and discrimination.

The oral language samples were carefully analyzed by the writer and two volunteers (See Table 2). The mean length of utterance for the dictation in the first six weeks was 7.13. Mean length of utterance for the second six weeks (Feb. 20-April 1) was 10.6 4, well above the 20% gain projected. Average number of sentences per utterance increased from 1.784 to 2.4; average number of prepositions per utterance increased from .741 to 1.62; average number of different words per utterance increased from 11.05 to 21.57. Total number of different words used by the fifteen students during the three-month period was 706. Greatest gains were in average number of words per dictation and number of different words per utterance. The smallest gain was in nunber of sentences per utterance. The 2.24 sentences in the second six

TABLE 2

Summary of Means for 1st 6 weeks and 2nd 6 weeks.

Oral Language Samples

Variable	Jan. 9 - Feb. 20	Feb.20 - Apr. 1
Average Number of Words per Utterance (MLU)	7.13	10.64
*Average Number of Words per Dictation	14.07	23.17
Average Number of Sentences per Utterance	1.784	2.24
Average Number of Prepositions per Utterance	.741	1.62
Average Number of *Different Words per Utterance	11.050	21.57
Total Number of Different Words 3 Months	706	

weeks were considerably longer than the 1.784 sentences of the first six weeks, due to the use of "and" and "because" and with the use of the prepositional phrase (over twice as many). Lengthy dictation during the second session had to be cut off due to time constraints. Sentences, in many individual children, showed changes from static to dynamic. Illustrative sentences are:

"I like to watch cartoons," at the beginning, to the more dynamic "My daddy and me was in his truck when we saw a baby lying in the road." Although the writer did not count function words, function forms which appeared with some regularity the second six weeks were: "then," "when," "what," "did," "after," "because," "couldn't." Spontaneous talk the second six weeks included the following topics:

"My mama and I went to church and...."

"At the party we ate...."

"I saw a car fall into the canal and...."

"My grandma had a snake under her bed...."

"My little sister got sick and threw up on me...."

"My mama took me to Palm Beach to get new shoes...."

"I learned how to break-dance and do the tick...."

"I tied my cat behind my three-wheeler."

"My mama let me cook tortillas."

"My auntie is moving in with us and...."

The children's talk reflected not only their wide ranging curiosity and experience but also the scope of the intervention. The total of 706 different words showed the range and ingenuity of these "at risk" students as well as the timeliness of the work. The 47 words

that follow were selected at random from the total, and are quite representative.

karate	bullets
teddy bear	skeleton
strangers	Vee
crocodiles	Burt Reynolds
hippopotamus	Incredible Hulk
billy goats	God
cornflakes	dollars
California	money
canals	Grandaddy
alligators	dark
dies	Christmas
dead	transformer
Georgia	polka dots
ocean	video
jungle	G.I. Joe
rollercoaster	cabbage patch
uniform	McDonald's
handculls	Burger King
mask	wrap
yell	tortillas
smoke	sausage
knife	Pittsburg Steelers
	Miami Dolphins
	scratched
	hospital

Results showed that when oral dictations were analyzed, significant improvement was found along all dimensions of oral language usage evaluated. In addition to indicating substantial growth in oral language facility, this increased use of language fostered an eagerness on the part of children to share their ideas. The goal of 20% increase in mean length of utterance was met and passed.

Table 3 refers to pre and posttesting for the Sentence Repetition Task. Although the writer was interested mainly in "function word omissions," which decreased more than the projected 15%--nearly 50%, substitutions, reconstructions, and errors (Appendix A) were brought

into account.

Errors and reconstructions were decreased dramatically. Substitutions increased because there were words substituted that did not change the essential meaning and were, therefore, acceptable. Reconstructions and errors (total inability to articulate) were turned into the benign form of substitutions.

Table 3 refers to the pretesting and posttesting of Piagetian tasks of seriation, numeration, and discrimination (See Appendix B). Mean increase in total test scores was projected at 10%. Table 4 shows gains for individuals ranging from a high of .42 for three children to a .08 gain for one child. Two scores remained constant. The mean increase in total test scores in the tasks was 19%.

The writer looked for correlations between function word omissions (Table 3) which could be termed delayed speech, and gains on Piagetian tasks (Table 4). The four children classed as delayed speech in January reduced their function word omissions by 25% to 50%, at the same time increasing scores on Piagetian tasks varying between 17% and 42%. The only child who was considered "delayed" in speech at the end of the intervention was an Arab child who had entered, speaking minimal English. Even this Arab child, who, after the intervention, suddenly began to out-distance his peers, will be promoted, conditional upon attending summer school. The mean increase in tasks of discrimination was 23%; tasks of seriation, 5%; and numeration, 15%. Seriation was the only task under the 10% increase.

The goals of "consciousness raising" for Gove Elementary School,

TABLE 3

Sentence Repetition Task

PRE TEST

Students	Errors	Reconstructions	Function Word Omissions	Substitutions
15	6.60	7.26	11.26	5.66

POST TEST

L%	4.93	3.66	6.60	7.20

TABLE 4

Piagetian Tasks

Students	Pretest Total	Post Test	
1.	.75	.67	- .08
2.	.50	.92	+ .42
3.	.41	.66	+ .25
4.	.66	.92	+ .26
5.	.83	.92	+ .09
6.	.83	1.00	+ .17
7.	.92	.92	-----
8.	.66	.83	+ .17
9.	.75	.83	+ .08
10.	.58	.92	+ .34
11.	.83	.83	-----
12.	.50	.92	+ .42
13.	.75	.83	+ .08
14.	.50	.92	+ .42

MEAN INCREASE IN
TOTAL TEST SCORES
= 19%

Discrimination + 29%
Seriation + 5%
Numeration + 15%

at this writing, is still being met. The principal, upon reading this intervention in its entirety, supported the conclusions of the writer and has asked that this report be shared with the Gove faculty. The writer intends to copy an abstract for each member of the faculty and ask for discussion in the meeting. Unknown to this writer, the steering committee of Federal programs has recommended as of April 1st, an oral language component, using language experience approach. Since two curriculum writers are needed to begin work, the writer has applied. Perhaps this intervention will indeed be incorporated into the curriculum of Federal programs for Palm Beach County. The writer intends to share her results with policy makers in the Chapter One program as well as the faculty at Gove Elementary School.

Conclusions

One unanticipated outcome of this intervention was the interest shown in Harms' (1980) cook book by the Director of the Exceptional Childhood Center. Now, mentally and emotionally handicapped children as old as eighteen years are learning to read simple words and to measure.

The writer's own experience was enlarged, especially in the rhythmic reading of jingles, body movements, and clapping. One child, after demanding to recite "Patsy Penny" at every session, quite suddenly and unexpectedly, full of delight, began to "catch on" to sounding out words and blending consonants and vowels. The child's classroom teacher was astonished. The writer was fascinated also at a Hispanic child's insistence on lip-reading activities each day, at which he

excelled. Having been unsuccessful at hearing sound/symbol correspondancies, suddenly he began to be able to understand the use of speech sounds for the first time. It was as though the child were hearing impaired, though such was not the case. The writer immediately could understand for the first time, the importance of watching the shape of the mouth and lips, a factor she had previously overlooked.

Of the approximately forty "at risk" first graders, only eight will not be promoted to the second grade. Of the eight, one is Arab and spoke minimal English at the beginning of the year. Three were late coming into the program. Jour have been removed to attend learning disabilities classes next year. Four additional students will be promoted conditionally. Two teachers commented that they had never expected their children to pass first grade, and were delighted to see them as readers beginning to achieve fluency.

Statistically, the children achieved above the 20% gain in mean length of utterance, above the 10% gain on Piagetian tasks. Coincidentally, the Chapter One program is now planning to implement a developmental oral language program in the county. Gove Elementary will have five such classrooms implementing a new oral language curriculum with an enthusiastic Principal in charge. One still needs to ask one fundamental question: Would improvement this great have occured as a result of some other program of reading, or even, simply on the basis of maturation? How much was the basal reader approach used with these children in the classroom, responsible for gains? The writer wishes it had been possible to have a control and an experimental group.

Due to the transient nature of the children and to the need for shifting children from one class to another, this was not possible. The figures will have to speak for themselves. Substantial language growth has taken place in a three-month period. It is unlikely that differences this great would have occured without a highly stimulating program of language development. As this report was written, reading and ligtening scores on the final Stanford Achievement Test had not been released.

Recommendations

The writer relied heavily on Teacher (Ashton Warner, 1963) for the language experience component, as well as 101 Ways to Improve Self Concept (Canfield and Wells, 1976). Sentence patterns, rhythms, and getting ready were lifted from Moving into Skills of Communication (Cooper and Anastasiow, 1972). For a contemporary approach to relating to the Black experience, the writer used Hale's (1982) Black Children, Their Roots, Culture, and Learning. The language experience dictation needed to be contained in twenty minutes for the small group. Attention span lengthened as the oral utterances lengthened, but would not allow for a longer period. Children, after the conclusion of this intervention, repeatedly asked for the sentence patterns, rhythms, pantomimes and puppets. There was great enthusiasm for these activities. The writer feels strongly that these should be a part of each child's day. In a full day with children, the language experience could easily be elicited individually by an aide or volunteer or by the teacher. The writer believes it was the combination of these

components that brought results.

Dissemination

The writer hopes this solution will be used, at least in part, in all Palm Beach County Chapter One Basic classrooms beginning the next school year. The entire structure of Chapter One, now being reorganized, will provide in the future for a component in language experience and oral language development. The writer will share the abstract of this intervention with the Gove Elementary School faculty and the coordinator of west area Chapter One Basic program and the migrant program. The writer has applied for the position of curriculum writer for the program to be used in the county. Perhaps this intervention will be used, in part, in county-wide planning in the coming years.

The principal at Gove Elementary School reacted to this intervention in a positive way. She, having been a first-grade teacher, feels strongly that this component may affect positively all children, not simply children of low socio-economic status.

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APPENDIX A

SENTENCE REPETITION TASK

Nicholas J. Anastasiow, Ph.D.
Institute for Child Study
Indiana University

and

Michael L. Hanes, Ph.D.
Institute for Development of Human Resources
University of Florida

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The Sentence Repetition Technique is designed as a diagnostic tool to assist early childhood education and kindergarten teachers in distinguishing children who speak a different dialect and are normal in language development from those children who speak a different dialect and are developmentally delayed. The technique is based on the work of Menyuk (1964), Slobin (1967), and Baratz (1969).

Developmental Delay

Menyuk demonstrated that when children were asked to repeat well-formed English sentences, they would omit portions of the sentence which were beyond their level of language development. For example, if the child had not mastered the past tense, the child would omit those features of the language. Slobin found similar results with young children. Slobin's and Menyuk's list of sentences are appropriate for children below the age of five. The utility of the technique is that the investigator or teacher can determine from the types of omissions the child makes where on a continuum of development the child is in his acquisition of standard English forms.

Culturally Different Children

Children who come to school speaking a variant of standard English frequently have been classified as deficient in language acquisition (Deutch, 1965). Those psychologists who hold a genetic-deficit position have postulated that culturally different children are deficient due to genetic constraints (Jensen, 1969). However, ample data are now available to refute this socially and biologically naive theory (Scarr-Salapatek, 1971; Anastasiow & Hanes, 1974, and Labov,

1973).

Baratz using a sentence repetition task was able to demonstrate that black speakers of non-standard vernacular (also called black English) were more adept at repeating non-standard sentences than were white middle class children. Rural white, inner-city, and rural black children who live in poverty conditions speak a variant of white middle class vernacular. This language is a sufficient language in that it serves a sub-cultural group, but it contains some forms uncommon in standard vernacular as well as some forms which are variants of standard.

Baratz (1969) identified the common differences between black inner-city vernacular and white middle-class English.

Written	Linguistic Feature	Oral Expression
John's house	possession	John's house
John runs	3rd single present	John run
ten cents	plural	ten cent
He jumped	past	He jump
She is a cook	copula	She a cook
He doesn't have any toys	negation	He ain't got no toys He don't have no toys
He asked if I came	past conditional question	He asked did I come
Everyday when I come he isn't here	negation to be	Everyday when I come he don't be here

In addition to these forms Labov (1973) reported the following phonological differences:

1.	r less-ness	guard = God
2.	l less-ness	tool = too
3.	simplification of consonant clusters	past = pass
4.	weakening of final consonants	mend = men
5.	lack of /i/ and /e/ distinction	
6.	lack of distinction of /ih/ and /eh/ before /r/	
7.	/ay/ and /aw/ sound like /ah/	

In addition, Labov indicates that inner-city speech contains a unique form which he has called the "negative attraction." For example "It ain't no cat can't get in no coop" translated into white middle-class English becomes: "There isn't any cat that can get into my pigeon coop."

Language Development Beyond Five

Contrary to former beliefs, all children continue to master the more complex forms of English after the age of five. Double consonants in medial positions, such as "twelfth," continue to pose problems until the child is approximately eight. Further, Piaget (1962), H. DeZwart (1973), and the cognitive linguists (see T. E. Moore, 1973) have pointed out that language acquisition is a product of cognitial acquistion. Language follows the path of cognitive development rather than preceeds

it. Thus, the more complex forms of logic and grammar are not mastered by the child until 8 to 12 years of age. Anglin (1970) has postulated that some forms, particularly abstract relationships, are acquired after the child is 12 and are not fully mastered until adulthood. Examples of such logical constructions are "if-then," "either-or," and abstract relations which are found in the function words of "while," "because," developmentally delayed in their language acquisition (Anastasiow & Hanes, 1974).

Procedures For Administering

In the sentence repetition task the child was asked to repeat the stimulus sentence exactly as presented. If the child did not give a complete, verbatim repetition to the example sentence in the standard instructions, the instructions were repeated until a verbatim response was given. Also, if during the task the child refused to respond to three consecutive stimulus sentences, the instructions including the example sentence were repeated. We advise pre-recording the sentences. Select for your speaker a voice which is relatively free of regional dialects so that your measure is one of the child's ability to understand middle-class, white vernacular. The standard instructions are:

> " These machines are tape recorders. Have you ever used a tape recorder before? Would you like to tell this tape recorder your name and how old you are?
>
> (replay the tape so that the child can hear his voice on the tape recorder)
>
> Now we are going to play a game. To help us play this game we will use these machines (point to the two tape recorders). This machine will say some words to you (point to the large tape recorder). What I want you to do is to say exactly what it says, into this machine (point to the small tape recorder). For example,

suppose the machine says, "The man is tall, "what would you say? (if the child repeats correctly, continue; if not, repeat the example again).

Now, listen to what the machine says and then you say exactly what it says, O.K.?"

Function Words

Content words relate actual physical or psychological events to a specific meaning. Common content words include "boy", "girl", "dog", "then," and "but." Thus, too often children who speak a different vernacular are perceived to be lower developmentally than they actually are. Their so-called lower status may be on dimensions all children have difficulty with.

The Sentences

A further problem in assessing the child who resides in poverty is that frequently he does not respond to an investigator's questions as freely as a middle-class child. Asking lower-class children to respond to "What did you do on your vacation?" or "What did you watch on TV?" leads to one word responses on the part of the child. Part of the problem is cultural: The child may not have been on a vacation. Part of the problem is linguistic: The child will say "look at TV" not "watch TV," and watch as pronounced in non-standard vernacular has homonyns which do not mean "to look at."

The sentences were designed to yield two scores. The first score is Reconstruction Score. This score is a measure of how many words that have equivalents in non-standard dialect the child "reconstructs" or changes to his own vernacular. For example, the child might repeat:

"She isn't a good singer" as "She ain't no good singer." At least one standard form which has an equivalent form in non-standard vernacular is included in each sentence. Most sentences have more than one form that can be reconstructed into non-standard vernacular.

The second score is Function Word Omissions. The sentences were constructed to contain at least one abstract function word to determine the degree of difficulty children are having with these forms. It is suspected that children with high function-word omissions scores are 'cow', and 'ball'. Function words do not contain a specific meaning, but specify relationships between content words. Frequently used function words include 'now', 'because', 'when', and 'any' (Neisser, 1967). Function words are grammatically more complex since they relate symbolic representations within a semantic expression (Brown, 1973). A common research finding is the lack of function words in samples of young children's language. Brown reasoned that the lack of function words in child language was due to the greater grammatical and cognitive complexity involved in processing function words.

Diagnostic Tool

The instrument is designed to aid the teacher in determining whether a child is repeating abstract terms (Function Words Correct), is developmentally delayed (Function Word Omissions) or is reconstructing (word is changed to an equivalent form in poverty vernacular). In additin, a fourth category was added. It was found that children would substitute words for the ones they were asked to repeat. The words substituted frequently were equivalent to the one given in the sentence; for example, for "neater" the child might substitute "cleaner".

These substitutions are considered correct if they maintain the meaning of the sentence.

The instrument is a diagnostic tool to aid the teacher in determining the child's approximate linguistic and cognitive status. It is not meant to be a normed test although language norms were used in constructing the sentences.

In the studies conducted to date the following mean scores were obtained from a sample of low SES children in New York City.

Function Words Correct:

	Grade		
School	1	2	3
1	27.85	32.44	34.83
2	29.28	31.83	34.16
3	28.36	31.20	32.00

Function Word Omissions:

Grade	
1	9.44
2	7.22
3	6.17

Inner-city black children tend to reconstruct about 58 percent of the words in the sentences. The following tables included the sentences, the list of function words, reconstruction words and scoring rules and key.

Sentence Repetition Task

1. He was tied up.
2. She isn't a good singer.
3. Where can he do what he want?
4. Then he went to the movies by himself.
5. She said, "Whose toys are those?"
6. Did an accident happen while your mother was in the store?
7. Jim, who tried to escape, was caught and then beaten up.
8. Although I want ice cream, I bet I'm not going to get any.
9. The boy was hit by the girl who jumped rope in the street.
10. He runs home quickly after school because he has a bicycle to ride.
11. If you want to see an elephant's baby, then you will have to go to a zoo.
12. Joe is good when he feels like it.
13. His mother wouldn't let him go to school because he had no shoes to wear.
14. I think Mary is absent because her mother thought she was sick.
15. The boys were given lots of milk by the ladies in the lunch room.
16. You should either say nice things to your friends or not say anything at all.
17. Joe has to be quiet in class or his teacher won't let him have recess.
18. Joe fell down the stairs while his mother talked to the baby.
19. The teacher will give you a smile when you have finished your work.
20. If your papers are neater then your teacher will be happier.
21. She's got a lollipop which she's going to give me if I'm nice to her.
22. I asked him if he did it and he said he didn't do it.

23. What are you doing tomorrow morning after you've eaten breakfast?

24. He couldn't have any ice cream because his sister ate it all up.

25. Although Jimmy felt sick he came to school.

26. Half of nine is not four, because four and four makes eight.

27. His mother will give him a cookie when he has eaten his supper.

28. That animal is not dead because it is still moving.

Scoring Rules for SRT

Function Words

Scored correct if:

1. Verbatim repetition
2. If stated twice, once correct, the other time wrong
3. In sentence 8 ("although") bears similarity to ("ah-toe" "ah-so")

Scored as substitution and correct if:

1. Function word substitution retains full meaning of the sentence.
2. In sentence 13 ("wouldn't") substituted by "didn't, or "doesn't
3. In sentence 16 ("or not") substituted by "or don't," or "say nothing"
4. In sentence 20 ("neater" and "happier") substituted by "cleaner" and "nicer"
5. In sentence 22 ("didn't") substituted by "not" or similar negative
6. In sentence 9 and 15 retention of passive structure requiring use of "by" regardless of the noun in the phase.
7. In sentence 10 ("after school"), after may be substituted by another temporal preposition (for example, "before school")

Scored error if:

1. Response given is incorrect according to the Key and not a valid substitution

2. Words are distorted beyond intelligibility. This happened if the response simply could not be understood, although it was evident that a sound was made in the correct "response alot"

Reconstruction words:

Scored correct if:

1. Response stated is verbatim
2. Response is stated twice (once verbatim, the other time wrong or reconstructed)
3. Response is contracted onto a noun or pronoun (for example, "teacher 'll" instead of "teacher will")

Scored as a reconstruction and correct if the word (s) or phrase (s):

1. Is clearly in reconstructed form as stated on scoring guide
2. Is said twice (once reconstructed, the other incorrect)
3. Is expanded from a contraction (for example, "she has got" instead of "she's got" or more formal English, such as "she has;" also in sentence 13 ("had no") to "didn't have any;" and in sentence 21 ("she's going to") to "she is going to"

Scored as an error if the reconstructed word (s) or phrase (s):

1. Is inappropriate responses: not a reconstruction
2. Is distorted beyond intelligibility
3. In sentence 7 ("beaten up") was altered to "beat him up"
4. In sentence 9 ("jumped") was altered to "that had the rope."

5. In sentence 13 ("had"), 10 ("has"), 17 ("has, have"), and 19 ("have") was pronounced "ha..."
6. In sentence 11 ("will have") was altered to "won't have" or "don't have"

Scored omission if function or reconstruction word(s) or phrase(s):

1. Is not repeated in the response sentence
2. If no response was made to the stimulus sentence
3. If background noise or sound reporduction affected discriminability of the word(s).

Scoring Key for Function Words

1. ---
2. ---
3. Where. . .what
4. Then
5. Whose (retention of interrogative)
6. Did (retention of interrogative). . .while
7. Who. . .then
8. although
9. by the girl (retention of passive marker). . . who
10. after school (retention of temporal). . .because
11. If . . .then
12. when
13. wouldn't (retention of negative) . . . because
14. because
15. by teh ladies (retention of passive marker)
16. either . . .or; not (retention of negative conditional)
17. or
18. while
19. when
20. If . . . then; neater . . . happier (retention of comparative)
21. which . . .if
22. if . . .didn't (retention of negative)
23. what . . .after
24. couldn't (retention of negative) . . .because

25. Although

26. because

27. When

28. because

Scoring Key for Reconstruction Words

1. was tied	got tied
2. isn't a	ain't no; ain't a
3. wants	want
4. movies	movie
5. said . . .toys	say . . .toy
6. Did . . .mother	was . . .noun variant
7. was caught . . .beaten up	got caught . . .got beat up; beat up; got beaten up
8. I'm not going to	I ain't gonna; I not gonna; I'm not gonna
9. was hit . . .jumped	got hit . . .jump, was rope jumping, was jumping rope
10. runs . . .has	run . . .have
11. elephant's. . .will have	baby elephant; elephant baby . . . have; got
12. is . . .feels	be; delete . . .feel
13. had . . .shoes	have, didn't have no. . . shoe
14. is . . .was	be; delete. . .got
15. boys. . .lots	boy . . .lot; alot
16. things . . .friends	thing . . .friend
17. has . . .have	got . . .get
18. stairs . . .talked	stair . . .talk
19. will give . . .you have. . . finished	be giving; give . . .you (delete have) . . .finish
20. papers . . .will be	paper . . .be
21. She's . . .she's. . .I'm	she got, she has got or she has. . . she going, she is going. . . I be; I

22.	if . . .said	did . . .say
23.	are . . .you've eaten	delete; be . . .you eat
24.	ate	eat
25.	felt. . .came	feel. . .come
26.	is not. . .makes	ain't. . .make
27.	will give . . .he has eaten	be giving; give . . .he eat
28.	is not	ain't

APPENDIX B

PIAGETIAN TASKS OF DISCRIMINATION, SERIATION AND NUMERATION

Discrimination, Seriation and Numeration

E attempted to make an encouraging transition to this task by saying something like:

> YOU CERTAINLY DID WELL ON THAT GAME,_____(child's name).
> NOW WE ARE GOING TO PLAY ANOTHER KIND OF GAME.

E then moved the sound equipment away and brought out the sticks and score sheets for the new task.

Discrimination Task

E placed the set of nine sticks in disarray upon the table and said to the S;

> CAN YOU FIND THE SMALLEST STICK? SHOW ME THE SMALLEST STICK.

If S chose the smallest stick 1 point was recorded.

E then said to S:

> CAN YOU FIND THE LARGEST STICK? SHOW ME THE LARGEST STICK.

If S chose the largest stick 1 point was recorded.

Next E asked S to hide his eyes, during which time E disguised the smallest stick so that it appeared larger by having it protrude beyond the surrounding sticks. S was then told to look and E said:

> FIND THE SMALLEST STICK. SHOW ME THE SMALLEST STICK.

If S was able to pick the smallest stick he received 1 point. E then asked S to hide his eyes again, during which time E camouflaged the largest stick. To do this, E took the fourth and fifth largest sticks and, with the largest stick, arranged them so that a stick on one side of the largest protruded beyond it in one direction and the stick on the other side of it protruded beyond it in the opposite direction. S was asked to look again and E said:

FIND THE LARGEST STICK. SHOW ME THE LARGEST STICK.

Following this task, S was reinforced for playing the game well while his score was recorded on the score sheet as unobtrusively as possible.

Seriation task

With the sticks in disarray on the table, E said:

WE ARE GOING TO MAKE A STAIRWAY WITH THE STICKS. WATCH ME.

E constructed a stairway with the sticks, being sure that S was watching. E used a straightedge (ruler, pencil, etc.) to make sure the lower ends of the sticks were on the same level, and as he did so he said:

SEE HOW I AM DOING THIS?

E then mixed up the sticks and said:

NOW YOU MAKE ONE JUST LIKE MINE.

If S succeeded in seriating the nine sticks, he was scored correct on three parts of the task. If S failed to seriate the nine sticks, E removed the five largest and asked S to make a stairway with the remaining four. If S failed to do this correctly, the task was discontinued. If S succeeded in seriating four sticks correctly, E gave S three more sticks and placed the total of seven sticks in disarray on the table for S to seriate. If S failed at this task, the seriation was discontinued. If S succeeded in seriating the seven sticks, E again gave S all nine sticks and asked him to make another stairway.

Those Ss who initially or eventually were able to seriate nine sticks were given five additonal sticks (the second set) and E said:

I HAVE SOME MORE STICKS THAT GO IN THE STAIRWAY. CAN YOU PUT THEM IN THE STAIRWAY WHERE THEY BELONG?

If S failed to get the idea, E demonstrated by putting one of the sticks in the stairway. S was scored according to the number of sticks he initially or eventually seriated. (1 point for each set of seriations - 4, 7, 9, or 14.) E again reinforced S for his performance on this task.

Numeration task

With the nine sticks reconstructed into a stairway, E asked S to count the stairs. E placed the plastic doll on the first step and, pointing to it, said to S:

LOOK, A DOLLY IS ON THIS STEP. HOW MANY STAIRS DID THE DOLLY HAVE TO CLIMB TO GET TO THIS STAIR?

This point was repeated in various ways until E was sure that S understood. Once S had the idea, E placed the doll at the bottom of the stairway and pointed successively to each stair, beginning with the lowest one. As he did so, E asked S each time:

HOW MANY STAIRS WOULD THE DOLLY HAVE TO CLIMB TO REACH THIS STAIR?

S was allowed to pick up the doll and use it in answering the questions.

E next pointed to the fourth stair and again asked:

HOW MANY STAIRS WOULD THE DOLLY HAVE TO CLIMB TO GET TO THIS STAIR?

E repeated the process on the seventh stair. S was scored one point for correct answers to both parts of the question (e.g., answering "four" and "seven"). S was also scored one point for counting the stairs and another point for telling at which step the dolly was placed when walking up from the bottom (e.g., "four" and "fourth").

As a fourth point in the numeration task, E mixed up the sticks of the stairway, being careful they did not remain parallel to one another. E then said:

> IF THE STAIRWAY WERE BACK TOGETHER AGAIN THE WAY IT WAS BE, FORE, HOW MANY STAIRS WOULD THE DOLLY HAVE TO CLIMB TO REACH THIS STAIR? (E points to the fourth stair.)

E then repeated the process for the seventh stair (S must answer both questions correctly in order to get credit for this item).

Following this item the experimental tasks were completed and the S was led back to his room and another S taken to the testing area.

APPENDIX C

Magic Circle

Studies affirm the position that self-concept is related to achievement in school; they also indicate that the relationship is particularly strong in boys, that it begins to make itself evident as early as first grade, and that learning difficulties experienced in early school years persist (Canfield and Wells, 1976). Canfield and Wells say further that a student's self-concept is like a stack of poker chips. Some students start the learning game with a lot of poker chips; others with very few. In any potential learning situation, the student is asked to take a risk. He or she is risking his/her self-concept. The student with few poker chips will be extremely cautious about taking a risk (in this case, verbalizing). His self-concept cannot afford a failure (perhaps being laughed at). The Magic Circle attempts to build up each student's supply of poker chips,

1) accepting pupil contributions without judgment
2) maintaining a "you can do it" attitude
3) listening, listening, listening
4) being, in all ways, a friend

Leading the Circle Session

The children, upon entering the room each Monday and Wednesday, sat in chairs arranged in a circle. The writer, waiting until eyes were focused upon her, then through voice and gesture, established a sense of intimacy, a special atmosphere. Eliciting conversation from the children, the writer used sentence frames: "I like...."; I don't like or hate to...."; "I can...."; "I wish I could...."; "I'm proud that I can...."; "My daddy taught me how to...."; "My favorite place

is..." Each five-minute session began with a review of the rules:

1. Raise your hand to speak.

2. Look at each other straight in the eyes.

3. Never laugh at or put down anyone. Everything that is said is important and O.K.

4. Anything that is said is just among us. We won't repeat it anywhere else. (Palmares and Ball, 1972).

After the first six weeks, the children were asked to repeat or reflect what another child had just said.

Teacher: Cornelius, can you repeat what Xavier just said?
Cornelius repeats as closely as possible what he has heard.

Thus, the writer established listening skills as well as speaking skills. The student may say, "Xavier didn't speak loud enough." Xavier then repeats more loudly or distinctly. No child was obligated to speak. He could pass if he wanted and still feel accepted.

Getting Ready

After the five-minute Magic Circle, establishing that communication is a way of feeling good, the writer asked the children to stand and move the chairs to face the large, lined chart paper. Using Cooper and Anastasiow's (1972) Getting Ready, the writer understood that this may, indeed, be the most important part of the thirty minutes, since it focused the children's attention on the next activity.

Teacher: I want to introduce a friend of ours. Lion is one of our helpers. He is a puppet. He can say "Hi" to you.

Teacher demonstrates with Lion's paw

He can nod his head.

He can wave good-by.

He has a good head. He thinks with his head.

He helps us remember some things.

Teacher touches Lion's ears.

He helps us remember we have ears to_____.

Teacher pauses for children's response.

Yes, we have ears to hear with.

Teacher touches Lion's eyes.

And eyes to_____with.

The children respond.

Eyes to see with.

Teacher touches Lion's nose.

A nose to_____with.

A nose to breathe, smell with.

Teacher touches Lion's mouth.

And a mouth to_____with.

The children respond.

A mouth to talk with.

And a head to think with.

Thinking was a concept that became extremely important later. The writer later stressed thinking--then speaking.

APPENDIX E

Dictating the Shared Conversation

When the children have their eyes focused on the teacher's felt-tip marker, she says: "Cornelius, your hand is up. Will you repeat what you shared in the circle?" (Cornelius dictated verbatim, or at times modified considerably his original statement(s). Either was acceptable. Since the children had already learned letter and sound correspondencies, the writer asked the remaining three or four children to use their word attack skills to spell simple words phonetically. At other times, when attention was likely to wander from the print, the writer would say, "What word am I spelling now, Xavier?" or "How will I spell 'hot dog,' Cesar?" At the end of each child's dictation, all four children read the dictation together or the writer would ask a confident volunteer to read. At the termination of the program, utterances had lengthened, as had the dictations, so that, due to time constraints and a certain restlessness on the part of a few children in certain situations, individuals had to be stopped in the midst of what might have been considerably more lengthy dictations. Children were beginning to try to outdo each other as to the length and originality of subject matter! During the second six weeks, the writer explicitly taught the concept of "sentence," use of capital letters, and the period. She also taught the concept of blending sounds to articulate a "word." All of these concepts were taught using the children's own dictations.

APPENDIX F

Sentence Patterns

Phase three of the thirty-minute intervention involved five to ten minutes of either sentence patterns, lip reading or ball rhythms. Usually there was time for only one of these activities at the end of the session. This third component was based on Anastasiow's (1982) hypothesis that thinking processes at their neuronal base are probably motoric and certainly rhythmic. Underlying the communication of meaning through speech is a basic rhythm unique to the child's culture and to the child. Children who have acquired a spoken language different from that of the school needed to be helped to acquire school speech.

To engage the children in the sentence pattern, "Take Away," small toys were arranged on the carpet: a house, a deer, a dinosaur, a spoon, a ribbon, a dog, perhaps. Usually the writer began with eight objects and increased the number, as the children were able, to twelve.

Children: Look carefully at the objects, then close their eyes.

Teacher: Removes one object, hiding it behind her.

Child: (opening eyes) "Did you take away the house?"

Teacher: "No, I did not take away the house. (All children clap with her in time to the rhythm).

Child: "Did you take away the dog?

Teacher: "Yes, I took away the dog."

Here the children learned the use of "take" and "took" and the rhythm of the speech.

Sentence Pattern

Teacher: "We are going to play a game with the objects on the table. I will say, "Lino, bring me the ribbon, please". "Lino, you take the ribbon off the table and bring it to me saying, "Here is the ribbon." Each time an object was returned to the table, the writer and the children repeated the sentence pattern, as they clapped the rhythm.

Sentence Pattern

Children sat with hands cupped together on their laps.

Teacher: I will pretend to give each of you the ring, by putting my hands, palms together, into your hands. You close your hands at once, pretending you have it. I will give the ring to only one of you. Your part will be...

Child: "Does Virgil have the ring?"

Teacher: "No, Virgil does not have the ring."

Child: "Does José have the ring?"

Teacher: "Yes, José has the ring."

The teacher claps the rhythm of the words; the children keep their hands tightly closed. Children begin to understand the verbs "do" and "does," "have," and "has."

Sentence Pattern

Teacher: We are going to play a game with this toy dog. I will hide it either in my pocket or in the mystery bag. You are to close your eyes while I do the hiding. Then you say:

Child: "Did you hide it in your pocket?" Everyone claps rhythm.

Teacher: "Yes, I hid it in my pocket."

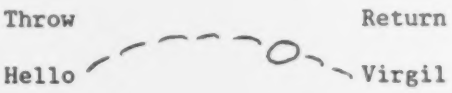
At times, the writer let one of the children be "teacher," hiding the object. Cooper and Anastasiow (1972) describe twenty or so of these sentence patterns. The writer described here those she used most often.

APPENDIX G

Ball Rhythms

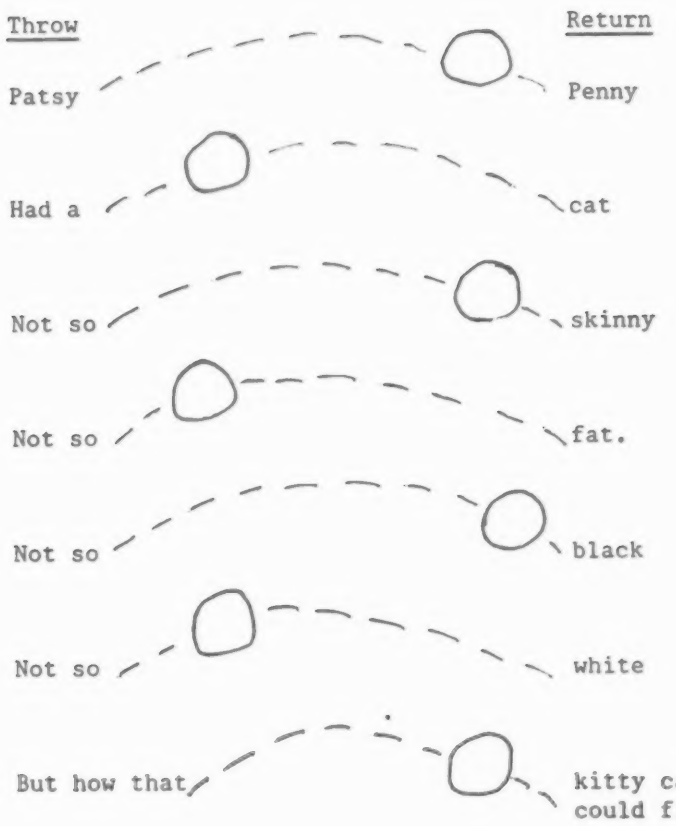
Ball rhythms were interpreted as throwing and catching a ball in time to the rhythm of a jingle, for the purpose of voice projection and for stabilizing speech patterns. Also, they were designed to enhance auditory discrimination and the flow of Standard English.

To introduce ball rhythms, the writer used Cooper's and Anastasiow's (1972) rhythms on bongo drums, and with a bean bag, instead of the large 30 inch kindergarten ball recommended. Bean-bag rhythms (due to insufficient space) worked beautifully. Each child repeated his/her name while the other three or four clapped the rhythm: "La-to-ri-a Sha-quan-dah, Cor-ne-li-us, Ja-cin-to, Glo-ri-a." Then the writer tapped the rhythm on bongo drums. The children tapped the rhythm on the drums. Later, the children stood in a circle, the writer in the center. As she threw the bean bag to each child in turn, she repeated his/her name.



Virgil would catch on the second syllable in "Virgil." Then tossed it back, "Hello, Mrs. Farrar." Still later, the writer introduced some of Cooper and Anastasiow's (1972) verses in rhythm. A favorite was "Patsy Penny."

Patsy Penny
Had a cat
Not so skinny
Not so fat.
Not so black
Not so white
But how that
kitty cat could fight!



The writer first read the verse to the group, sweeping her hand under the lines as she read. Then the group clapped the rhythm. One child was asked to find all the letter "t's" articulating them in the medial and final positions, (the writer having previously reviewed the sound of "t" holding a slip of paper to her lips, showing children its movement with the sound.) Finally, one child would read the first line by himself. Another day, another child. Soon, all the groups could read "Patsy Penny" and had indeed memorized it. Later still, the writer used Patsy Penny with bean bag rhythms, standing in a circle. Other rhythms used were the Moving Man and the Giant.

Categories

A vocabulary extender such as "categories" was used whenever time allowed for three or four minutes. The writer established a rhythm, by slapping knees with both hands, clapping hands together, and snapping the fingers of the right hand and then the left, as teacher and children are seated in a circle. As the rhythm is established, 1...2...3...4...the teacher begins, "Categories...such as... names of...animals" (or other category).

one...slap knees

two...clap hands together

three...snap one finger

four...snap the other finger

Remaining seated, all children and teacher sustained the rhythm as established. Each child, beginning on the left of the teacher, named a different animal in time to the rhythm. Soon, the children could go around the circle many times naming different animals, drinks, "things that move."

APPENDIX H

Reading Lips

When a teacher gives a word or sentence without voice, it should be unexaggerated and easy (Anastasiow, Hanes, and Hanes, 1982).

Teacher: Let's name all the objects again.

They are named.

Lion helps us remember we have eyes to see with.

See if you can guess what my lips are saying.

Teacher shapes the word "house" without voice. After "house" was identified, each object thereafter was named without voice. Those having difficulty, the writer asked to come close, repeated the word very softly with voice, then without voice, tapped the rhythm of multi-syllable words on the palm of the child's hand. Certain children loved this game and asked for it every day. This game seemed to appeal especially to those who had had problems in auditory discrimination.

APPENDIX I

Spontaneous Group Talk

Friday's activities did not follow the set pattern of Mondays and Wednesdays. Its purpose, as with the other activities, was to lead the children into the use of decontextualized language, dynamic language of the concrete operational stage. Friday's events were structured to elicit conversation on the part of students, without guidance from the teacher. The teacher simply set the stage for the conversations which would, of necessity, lead to an explicit use of language.

The first Friday: cooking activity by the group. Using Harms (1980) recipes for children and teacher's guide, the writer established the first Friday as "Purple Cloud" day. Directions were pictured with a few words below, sequenced upright on a rectangular table. Children were first shown by pictures and words on the chalk board how to sequence the recipe: 1) 2 tablespoons pineapple juice 2) 2 tablespoons grape juice 3) 2 tablespoons ice cream 4) press STIR on blender 5) pour into cup. Children prepared their drinks in pairs. The two not involved in making the drink copied the recipe and pictures from the board to take home. The children began to use explicit language in directing each other in the cooking process. Sequencing we learned in a "hands-on" experience.

The second Friday: interviewing activity by the group. A policeman was invited as a guest at all classes, including the fifteen children engaged in this intervention. The children were informed they would have a guest to "interview". The nature of an "interview" was

explained. The writer admonished, "You will find out only those things that you ask." The purpose of this interview technique, aside from extending oral language, was to initiate the concept of the importance of learning by asking a question and expecting an answer. The policeman was asked not to volunteer information unless asked by the children. Instead of a hoped-for motorcycle, he brought with him a pepperfogger, a device used for riot dispersement. The children, hesitant at first, soon began to "warm up" to question-asking by means of the bean bag technique. The bean bag was given to the child with the question. He threw the bag to the policeman as he asked his question. This little device seemed to break the ice. When the next hand went up, the policeman tossed the bean bag to the questioner.

The third Friday: dramatic play. Children read together an extremely simple version of The Three Pigs. After reading it, the children sequenced and told the story from memory. One child used a wolf puppet, the other three, pig puppets, and extemporized their puppet play in the puppet theatre.

The fourth Friday: pantomiming. The writer whispered in the ear of each child an activity; taking a bath, sorting and washing clothes, break-dancing, fishing, playing football, baseball, rocking and burping a baby, and flying a kite. Each child took a turn pantomiming. Sometimes the writer asked two children to plan their pantomime together. Questions were asked in sentence patterns.

Children: "Were you taking a shower?

Child: "Yes, I was taking a shower."

This sequence of four activities was practiced for twelve Fridays. Due to a number of unforeseen circumstances, the second-Friday visitors were narrowed to two: the policeman, then a champion water-skier, who brought water sking equipment.

The first Friday cooking experiences likewise produced only two recipes, the second being "Fruit Salad" (Harms, 1982). Fruit salad combined 1) ¼ apple chopped 2) ¼ banana sliced 3) ¼ pineapple slice, cut 4) ½ walnut chopped, 1 tablespoon whipped cream, 1 tablespoon honey, mixed and poured on top.

Other third Friday puppet activities were The Three Bears and A Tale of Peter Rabbit. Fourth Friday pantomiming activities were extended to ball rhythms and sentence patterns, to fill in the two Fridays without the interviewed guest and the cooking experience. Time constraints mitigated against the cooking experience. Thirty minutes was not long enough. A difficulty with the interview was that a great deal of time needed to be spent in order to find an "exciting" person and interesting "props" to elicit oral language. Puppets and pantomiming were tremendously successful in getting the children to talk freely and creatively. Dramatic play was shown by Pellegrini, DeStefano and Thompson (1983) to lead to cognitive growth through the children's "casting" of characters and sequencing events. Harmes (1982) found the cooking activities elicited oral communication and planning together, as does the "interview" (Hobson and Haley-James, 1980) which excites curiosity and stimulates conversation. All of Friday's activities were peer-oriented, following Hale's (1982) conception of Black learning styles.